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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Volume VI SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 8, 1917 Number 141

MEASUREMENTS AND DIAGNOSIS AS AIDS TO SUPERVISION

THE topic set for our discussion is the use of educational measurements and diagnosis in the work of supervision. The indicated approach to this subject is by way of concrete illustration. We should get before us a situation in which diagnosis is necessary and where, in arriving at the diagnosis, the supervisor may make use of educational tests and scales. Such a situation is presented by the results of work in English composition as these results appear at every level of our school program from the lower grades to the university. I apprehend that there are few superintendents who, in the face of problems growing out of English teaching, have not felt the need of a more efficient instrument of educational diagnosis than any they have possessed. Our task will be to show that such an instrument is found in composition scales. If we can see the relation of educational measurement to the teaching of written language, possibly we may infer its wider uses in other supervisory tasks.

Let us first conceive the situation. At the meeting of the National Education Associations in 1893, the Committee of Ten declared that "not later than the first term of the third school-year children should begin to compose in writing," that "this writing should be continued throughout the course," and that "the study of English should be pursued in the high school," where, during the four years, a total of 240 hours "should be given to training in composition." From that day to this the "English problem," like the poor, has been continuously with us. More than any other it deserves to be called the persistent problem of education—persistent, not because of inattention on the part of school authorities, but persistent because of difficulties inherent in the task of learning to write. Rather than being negligent, teachers and school administrators have been zealous in trying to advance the teaching of composition. The effort which the task has elicited on the part of teachers, the proportion of school time devoted to English instruction, the books which have been written about it, both for students and teachers, the periodical literature, and the unending series of conferences and conventions devoted in whole or in part to a discussion of aims and methods of English teaching, are a compelling testimony to our serious attitude toward the problems initiated by the committee's report.

Yet, notwithstanding this exceeding activity, there is probably more general dissatisfaction with the results of work in English composition than with the results of any other phase of school instruction, for the students in our schools continue to write vaguely and inaccurately, without order or coherence, and with meager diction. I say general dissatisfaction, because one meets it everywhere. Professor Giddings's leaflet,[1] recently addressed "To ladies and gentlemen who have completed an American college education and are now pursuing graduate studies as candidates for higher degrees," is symptomatic of the irritation which college teachers suffer be-

[1] *Educational Review*, Vol. 53, p. 202, February, 1917.

cause of the linguistic delinquencies of their students. The leaflet contains "twenty-five suggestions" as to correct usage, "directly provoked by outrages committed in dissertations offered by candidates for the degree of doctor of philosophy in one university department in one year." These suggestions, given chiefly in the form of errors to be avoided, begin with an injunction "to consult the dictionary" in order to avoid "saying 'between' when you mean 'among,'" and range through a long list of incorrectly used words, violations of simple rules of grammar, awkward and unclear sentences and ineffective paragraphs. Professor Giddings's leaflet needs no justification to any person who has occasion to read the manuscripts or letters written by college or university students. Such students simply do not write clear or accurate English in the papers they prepare in examinations or in their numerous reports. In fact a well-written thesis or examination is such a rarity as to attract conspicuous attention.

If the English equipment of young people graduating from college is cause for dissatisfaction, the results of high-school work are even more so. Professor Judd calls the English teachers themselves to support his charge that the teaching of English in secondary schools falls short of ordinary success. The following is a direct quotation:[2]

> There is no group of teachers who more frankly acknowledge the complete failure of the work which they are doing. They disagree with each other at every point with regard to the content and methodology of their work. They frankly report the results of their own tests to show that high-school students and college students alike fail to meet even the most elementary standards of achievement which are set up. . . . Yet they insist that they must have the time which they now occupy, and indeed in some quarters they clamor for more time and attention. In the midst of acknowledged failure and chaos they keep insisting that what they are doing is of the highest importance. They scoff at the courses in manual training and vocational training. They criticize the sciences as uncouth and unesthetic. They charge the classics with formalism, and they regard mathematics as abstract and uninspiring.

If one turns to the grades the case for effective and correct expression becomes progressively worse. All who are familiar with children in the upper grammar grades are aware that relatively few of them can write a hundred words in an acceptable manner.

While these conditions are more or less apparent, it is extremely difficult to propose effective remedial measures. Most of us are quite willing to absolve ourselves from responsibility by a system of "ready reference," whereby the language deficiency of students in our courses is credited to the English department. My own experience in high schools and colleges does not warrant the belief that even the members of this department are averse to the "ready reference" system, for the colleges complain of the poor preparation the students have received in the high schools, the high schools transfer the blame to the grades, the upper grades to the lower grades, the lower grades to the homes from which the pupils come and possibly there each parent acquits himself by thinking of the other parent's family connections.

[2] Judd, C. H., "Psychology of High-school Subjects," p. 173.

In support of his statements Professor Judd cites the following:

1. "Twenty Years of School and College English." Published in Cambridge, 1896. F. H. Scott, "College Entrance Requirements in English," *School Review*, 1901, Vol. IX., pp. 365–378.

2. "Requirements for Admission to the Freshman English Course," Bulletin No. 13, University of Wisconsin, 1914. *English Journal*, Vol. II., 1913, p. 398. Reports of committees and individuals on "Amelioration of Conditions," published in the *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1912, pp. 747–765.

3. James F. Hosic, "The Advance Movement of Teaching of English," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1913, p. 91.

This shifting of responsibility, however, does not teach our students to write, and this we must do if we are not to admit that the Committee of Ten loaded our public-school system with a task which our scholastic and professional ingenuity does not enable us to perform. Learning to write is not an impossible task to demand of children and when we adequately understand the psychological processes therein involved we shall be able to produce methods of instruction and generalize them for effective service.

Basic among the causes for poor results in composition teaching is the difficulty of setting definite tasks for students to perform. Probably in no other subject has the difficulty been so great. When a child is asked to multiply 246 by 4, to tell who won the battle of Gettysburg, or what is the chief commercial product of North Dakota, to give the English equivalent for puella, to prove that at a given point on a straight line, one and only one perpendicular can be drawn to that line, or to calculate the velocity of a falling ball, he has a perfectly definite task to perform. By contrast the tasks assigned in English composition are likely to be indefinite and vague if not obscure. Consider the following assignments taken at random from books on composition: "Write a hundred word theme on the educational advantages of stamp collecting; the care of the furnace; a kite combat;" "Tell your feelings on making a speech;" "Using your imagination, write a biographical sketch of the circus clown." It is at once apparent that the manifold range of ideas, the possible points of view, the wide varieties of treatment make any one of these composition subjects a much more vague and indefinite task than assignments in other subjects are likely to be, and it is just this vagueness that prevents us from getting results in the composition work. Most children never know in any explicit and concrete form what it is that we expect them to do. They do not beforehand have a clear understanding of the task. When they complete it they are in total uncertainty whether they have satisfied the requirements or not.

I do not mean to imply that definite ideals and standards of acceptable compositions do not exist in the mind of the teacher. The difficulty comes in rendering these ideals and standards available to the student, to be used as a guide in his work and as a measure of his achievement. Teachers have not been unaware of the need of objectifying the tasks of composition. I once heard a veteran teacher of high-school composition tell how he induced his students to write like Macaulay. The method was to teach Macaulay's "Essays," especially the one on Milton, noting the qualities of style, and then to ask the students to prepare a paragraph of similar character. As testimony to the value of the method he exhibited some paragraphs decidedly Macaulayesque in style. Despite these evidences of success and without entering into the surely debatable question of whether students should be encouraged to approximate Macaulay's excessive Latinity, it is a safe guess that very few high-school students are appealed to by such a remote and, for most persons, unapproachable ideal.

This method, however, contains one important factor essential in the teaching of composition, the setting of objective standards for the student. From the beginning of his life a child makes use of objective language standards. Out of the repertory of babblings with which nature has provided him he selects for permanent use such as are used by the persons among whom he lives. Through all his early years he grows in language abilities, in pronunciation, in the acquisition and discrimination

of words, in phrasing and in the structure of his sentences, by this same method of comparing his own efforts at speech with the speech of his associates. Day by day and year by year, the highly individual reactions of infancy and childhood are sifted and winnowed in response to the relatively rigid forms of speech he hears and reads. Little by little he inhibits the expressions which his fellows do not use and which they do not understand; through unceasing repetition he fastens in his mind the forms that prove effective in his talk with them. Partly by personal invention and partly by imitation but always by standardization his utterances become a language.

The evident success which attends this natural method of language learning argues that very basic mental laws are operative in it, and gives reason to believe that its extension into the formal teaching of language habits will yield results. This extension has been difficult to make, however, because we have not had definite composition wholes of known value with which the student could compare his work. We have had the masterpieces of English prose —Arnold, Stevenson, Emerson, Pater— and at a far remove the student's own themes. To evaluate the latter in terms of the former requires an imagination quite beyond the young people in our schools. The model, if we call it such, makes no appeal to the student as a goal toward which he should strive, for it wholly exceeds his power to tell when he moves toward it and when he moves in the opposite direction. Paragraphs and sentences which are to become effective in stimulating and guiding the student's efforts, must fulfill two conditions. First, they must be so near his own achievements that he can imagine himself approximating their quality; secondly, there must be some arrangement by which the student can measure his own progress in well-defined units sufficiently small to make the progress seem real and satisfying. With these two requirements satisfied the teaching of composition avails itself of natural conditions of standardization which do so much in the ordinary education of the individual.

The one device which meets the two conditions thus noted is the composition scale. In this you have a graded series of themes, each with a definite evaluation. At one end of the scale the themes are poor in quality. From this point the samples range upward to high quality at the other end. Somewhere along the scale the student may find a theme which represents his own quality of work. He is able to locate himself at a definite point. When once he discovers this point he gets an objective view of his own product; his answer, so to speak, is rendered definite and tangible in much the same way as he finds possible in mathematics and science. By tracing the scale from the beginning up to the point where he now locates himself he sees the improvement he has already made. Beyond the point of his present achievement he sees the qualities to be attained. At the end of the scale he sees the ultimately desirable goal. The way to that goal is made easier in that the total distance is broken into smaller units which he can compass by easy but definite upward steps. The quality immediately above his present rating is the first end to be achieved. It is not too far away. It seems possible. It directs his next efforts toward improvement in a perfectly natural way.

Quite evidently a scale which definitely locates the quality of composition work serves also to reveal the effects of practise. Nothing can be more important for either the student or the teacher than this. Experimental studies are showing that prac-

tise in itself does not make perfect and that much of our best intentioned effort goes amiss. These studies are further showing that one of the prime conditions for rendering effective the efforts of a learner is that he shall know the results of his practise. Now just this is what a good composition scale will do. It will make clear the results of practise in a way that the student may know the direction, the rate, and the amount of change issuing therefrom.

A frequent objection to composition scales is that they attempt to standardize something which is incapable of such objective treatment, that they attempt to render definite something which must by its very nature remain indefinite. I was recently in conversation with a university instructor of rhetoric who assumed exactly this point of view. He is an experienced teacher of freshmen and I have no doubt as successful as any of his colleagues. He is under the continuous necessity of marking the papers of his students not only by way of correction but also by way of evaluation. He must give each theme a grade of A, B, C, D, or E. Inasmuch as he was taking exception to the idea of measurement in education, it was justifiable to put him through a cross-examination as concerns his own work in teaching. Such conversation developed the fact that he had a quite definite idea as to what constitutes a C theme. In his mind there were certain rules of structure as regards paragraphs and sentences that must not be violated if a theme were to receive this median grade. Certain violations brought it down to D and others reduced it to E. On the other hand there were certain merits that would lift a theme into a B class and certain others that would warrant the grade of A. Nor were these marks of merit and demerit wholly personal. Not only had the instructor brought to bear his own extended experience but these matters had been made the subject of departmental conferences and partial agreements. The real facts were that he and his colleagues had done just what he had declared could not be done; they had rendered definite the qualities to be desired in English composition. His real objection to composition scales was not to the idea of scales as such, for he had made, however unwittingly, such a scale for himself and for his own use as a grader of themes.

The construction of such personal scales as these, which must be to some degree the method of every grader of compositions, is in itself important, but the scales fall short of our desideratum because of the very great subjective and personal element in them. The advantage of the Harvard-Newton scale over that of this rhetoric teacher is that I can get at it without conducting an inquisition on its possessor. It is tangible and open and when I use it in Minneapolis I am fairly sure that my judgment of work and school standards are approximately the same as yours when you use it in Kansas City. Similarly the teacher can be much surer that the student understands his ideals when they have been rendered tangible in concrete illustrations definitely evaluated. In this form they became available to the student as goals of achievement before he begins to write. They are at hand as standards of comparison the instant the work is complete. They mark off for him in definite steps the path along which he must travel from month to month in his mastery of written speech. They do what it is so easy to do in mathematics, spelling, or the informational subjects and what it is so difficult to do in composition, make definite the task to be performed and give an impersonal measure of work accomplished.

If the composition scale serves the very

useful ends of making definite the student's task and of putting the student and the teacher on a common ground, it is even more valuable when a third party enters into the case. Let us consider the occasion of the supervisor's participation in the pupil's learning. Accepting for the moment the previous arrangement of the course of study, the supervisor connects with the teacher-pupil situation for one of two purposes, either to diagnose the pupil's present condition or to modify the methods of teaching and learning. If we are clearly to apprehend the first of these purposes we must know that to diagnose means to discriminate, to distinguish sharply the several factors in a situation. In the ten years during which this word has entered into psychological and educational discussion we have had the advent and the multiplication of tests and scales of measurement so that now when one speaks of mental or educational diagnosis he thinks of measured facts. This is as it should be. No sharp discrimination among any complex phenomena is possible except in terms of exact measurement and no mental or educational diagnosis of any child can be satisfactory except with the measuring instruments of psychological and educational science. If we are to diagnose a child for the purpose either of classification or of instruction in English composition we must measure his capacities and attainments in this specific function, and the most immediately serviceable instrument to this end is the composition scale. An adequate diagnosis, of course, would mean the use of other tests and scales, but with this one, simple to apply, the supervisor may determine in three minutes the present ability of a pupil in terms at once objective and impersonal, and come immediately to a common ground with both the pupil and the teacher.

A satisfactory diagnosis should suggest to the trained supervisor the essential element to be recognized in the treatment of the case. To test the efficacy of his prescription the scale is again available. Keeping in mind that the pupil's problem is to pass by successive practises from level to level along an upward sloping scale of achievement and that the teacher's function is to manipulate the environment—the materials, the practises, the time, the motivation—in such a manner as to facilitate this process, we apprehend that the supervisor's function is to know in definite measured terms the results of the teaching program and to assist at every point where the pupil's and the teacher's resources fall short. In doing this he needs some exact measure that will show whether his prescription has been effective, whether the pupil under his method of treatment has made the improvement which a semester's work would warrant. For this purpose there is no device so serviceable as the composition scale.

Teachers are accustomed to think in only the roughest quantitative terms regarding progress in composition ability. This is apparent the moment you raise any question involving exact appraisement of improvement. Just how much should a child improve in composition ability during a semester's work? So far as I am aware the only accurate answer in print to this question is contained in the grade scores of the children who have been measured by composition scales. If you put the question somewhat differently and ask how much improvement has been made by any particular child there is no printed answer to the question. If you put the question differently still and ask what has been the detailed experience of any child throughout the work of a semester, no answer is forthcoming. What type of child makes the

most rapid improvement? What method of instruction yields the largest results? In answer to none of these questions are there available measurements.

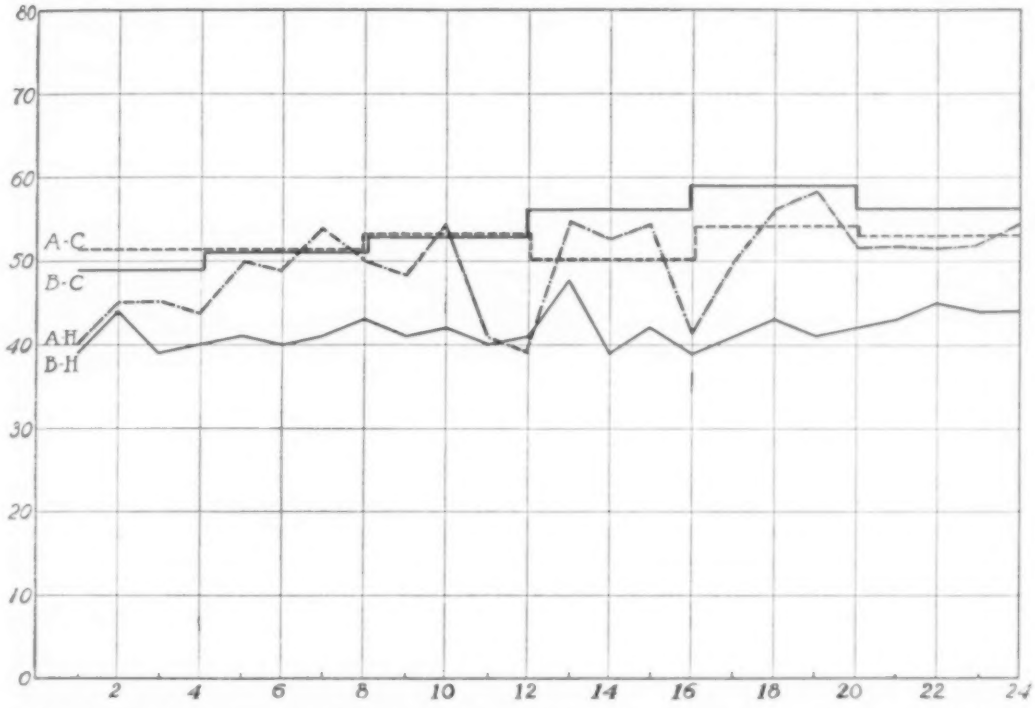

FIG. 1. English Composition and Handwriting. Practise curves for two elementary-school children. Full-drawn horizontal line indicates scores in composition for pupil "*B.*" Full-drawn angular line indicates scores in handwriting for pupil "*B.*" Broken lines, similar scores for pupil "*A.*" Figures on ordinates equal scale values. Figures on abscissa, successive periods of practise.

By way of illustrating the use of the composition scale let us consider one such question. How much improvement does a child make in learning to write compositions during a month of practise? In the summer of 1914, I suggested to Mr. D. I. Lewis, then a graduate student, that he attempt to measure the progress of children in writing composition through a month of daily practise. Two children were secured who agreed to be at the laboratory on each of five days per week. One was a fifth-grade pupil; the other was in the eighth grade. On each day a subject was given and they were allowed to write for twenty minutes.[3] At the end of a month, when each had written twenty-four themes, they were excused from further work and the several compositions were studied. The twenty-four themes of each pupil were graded by means of the Hillegas scale, each theme being marked by eight judges. The papers were also scored for handwriting by the Ayres scale. On the basis of the combined judgments each theme was rated and learning curves were made for each child. When the curves, shown in Fig. 1, had been

[3] Only general instructions were given and no detailed criticism of themes was made. At this stage of work the experimenter was not concerned with the conditions of improvement. It was preliminary work designed to develop a method by which conditions could be measured.

plotted certain things were evident. First, there was but little difference in the initial abilities of the two pupils, although they were classified in school four grades apart. Second, both improved as a result of the month's practise. They had improved, however, in quite different ways. The eighth-grade girl had begun with a weekly score of 51 and ended with a weekly score of 53. The fifth-grade girl had begun with a weekly score of 49 and ended with 56. The one had improved 2 points; the other 7. In the handwriting, however, the conditions were reversed. The child who improved 2 points in composition went up 9 in handwriting; the one who went up 7 points in composition went up but four in handwriting. The curves show not only the final condition but the detailed experience week by week throughout the practise. With an accurate record of the conditions under which the writing was done, the experimenter, who may be either teacher or supervisor, can identify the causes of good and poor work. In further instruction he may make use of information thus gained.

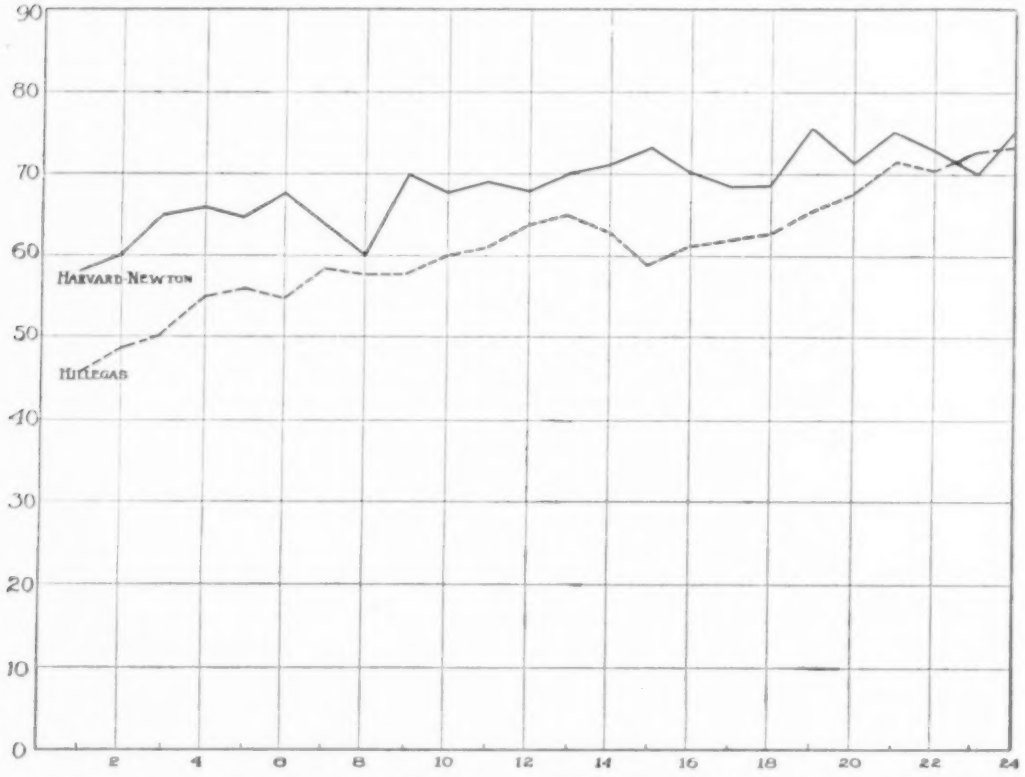

Fig. 2. Learning Curves in English Composition. Average weekly score of 40 eighth-grade students through a period of 24 weeks. Full-drawn line, scores by Harvard-Newton scale. Broken line, scores by Hillegas scale. Figures on ordinate-scale values. Figures on abscissa-weeks of practise.

This method of work is not limited to the improvement of a single student, but is equally applicable to the work of a class. Mr. Lewis was able to carry his method with him into the supervision of English teaching in a grade school of which he became

principal the following year. In the accompanying figure, Fig. 2, are shown the learning curves of an eighth-grade class through a period of 24 weeks, based on a Wednesday theme for each week.

For the sake of comparison the papers, 1,000 in all, were graded by both the Hillegas and Harvard-Newton scales and the two curves are shown together. The points on the curves represent the successive weekly themes as indicated by the numbers along the abscissa. The height of the ordinates are proportional to the average scores of the forty pupils for each week. For illustration, the lower curve should read: the average class quality of composition work for the first week as measured by the Hillegas scale was 46 (equating Hillegas values to percentage marks); for the second week it was 48.5; for the third week 50 and so on throughout the year to the twenty-fourth week, when the score was 74. Similarly the Harvard-Newton records begin at 58 and end at 75.

Whether or not such graphic representation of school work is valuable depends entirely upon the interpretation of the curves and the use to be made of them, but can there be any doubt that when the achievement of the children has thus been rendered definite and objective that a long step has been taken towards a solution of the teaching problems involved. That this apparent definiteness is real rather than adventitious is clear from the fact that the curves closely parallel each other. The Harvard-Newton values are uniformly higher than the Hillegas scores, even though at a few points they approximate each other. There is probably no better evidence of the effectiveness of these scales than the very evident tendency to influence the teacher's judgments in a definite direction. It is of no significance that the one scale gives higher scores than the other; it is of the greatest significance that each scale influences the judgment in a definite direction and that this influence is constant.

Growing out of Mr. Lewis's study is another interesting, though indirect, confirmation of the directive influence of these scales on the judgment of the teachers. Both biology and psychology recognize the existence of two sorts of twins, identical and non-identical. Mr. Courtis has pointed out that these phenomena appear in such highly specific functions as the ability to add, subtract, multiply and divide. It is of some interest, therefore, to find in the records of these measurements, twins which appear to be alike and twins which are but little, if any, more alike than two children taken at random. Eleanor and Martha looked alike, were of about the same size and were in general difficult to distinguish. Both were in the same fifth-grade class, were of poor ability and were judged by their teachers to be of about equal ability. The records show that from week to week they fluctuated together. In eleven of the twenty-four assignments, Eleanor was slightly superior; in seven, Martha did somewhat better; in six they were alike. The greatest difference on any day was 80 Hillegas scale points; the average difference for the six months was 30. Evidently we have here a common cause operating to produce identical results, and the suggestion is very strong that the common cause is the identical character of the twins.

It was very different with Dorothy and Winifred, who were in the same grade as Eleanor and Martha, but were regarded by the teacher as brilliant children and as being of about equal ability. The records show Dorothy to be much superior, scarcely ever dropping to so low a score as her sister. After the first seven weeks, during which time her curve shows a dead level, she began to improve and continued to do so in a fairly regular manner up to the end of the period. Only once did she drop to the level

of her first work and she wholly recovered her best quality at the end of the experiment. Winifred's curve is different at practically every point, keeping but little above the level of the other pair of twins during the first four and a half months, but striking a decided upward slant toward the end. In the absolute scores attained she is more like Eleanor than her own sister. From the former she differs by an average of seventy-five points; from the latter by an average of eighty points. Like Eleanor and Martha she fluctuates decidedly from week to week in striking contrast to the fairly sustained superior quality of Dorothy.

In judging these results it should be understood that the papers of these four girls were graded week by week with others from the same class. The teachers who gave the scores knew nothing of the use to which they were to be put. In fact this particular study was an after-thought on the part of the experimenter. The significant facts as shown are two: first, in the case of Eleanor and Martha we apparently have in the composition scales an instrument of measurement which will do for our educational problems what other instruments have long been doing in biology and psychology. We can show that identical twins are identical in their educational behavior. The second outstanding fact is that the use of the scale corrects the teachers' personal judgments. Whereas, they tended to judge Dorothy and Winifred as being of the same ability, the measurements show them to be highly different and renders this difference objective and tangible.

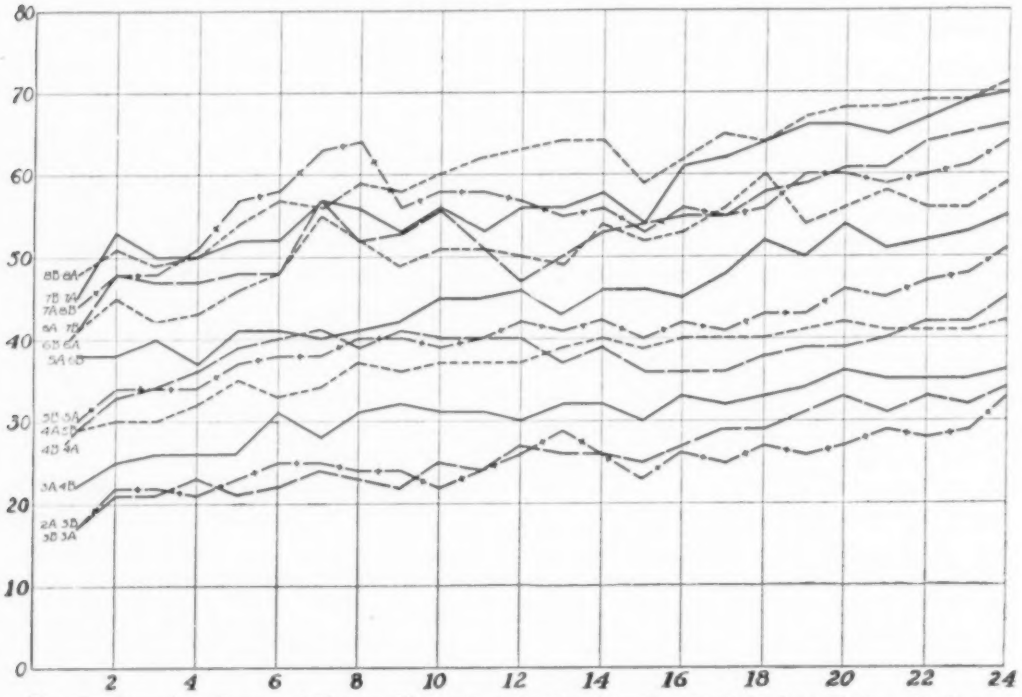

FIG. 3. Learning Curves of Twelve Elementary Grades through a Period of 24 Weeks. Each curve indicates average scores of all children in the city. More than 3,000 children represented. Figures on ordinate-equal scale values. Figures on abscissa, successive weeks of practise.

The method which produces these curves for a single child or grade is, of course, applicable to other grades in the same building and to the same grades in other buildings. In the next figure, Fig. 3, we have twelve curves representing the several half grades from 2A to 8A. Here appears at a glance the entire city situation. In order to discover one of the important problems of supervision let us take the curve for the 7A–8B grade. This group begins the year lower than the next higher grade, but makes very rapid advance during the first weeks, doing better work than the highest grade. At the ninth week it drops below the 8B–8A group and then follows more than two months of dead level practise with some recovery in the final weeks. The progress, however, measured in terms of what the other grades do is never satisfactory, the finish being not only below the 7B–7A but also lower than the 6A–7B group. To discover the cause of this unsatisfactory progress is the business of supervision, because the source of trouble is not local. Approximately 300 children, eight principals and as many teachers are involved in these composite scores. The difficulty is, therefore, not a few poor children, a single poor teacher, or a single inefficient principal. The source of trouble is something with a wide range of contacts. Just what it

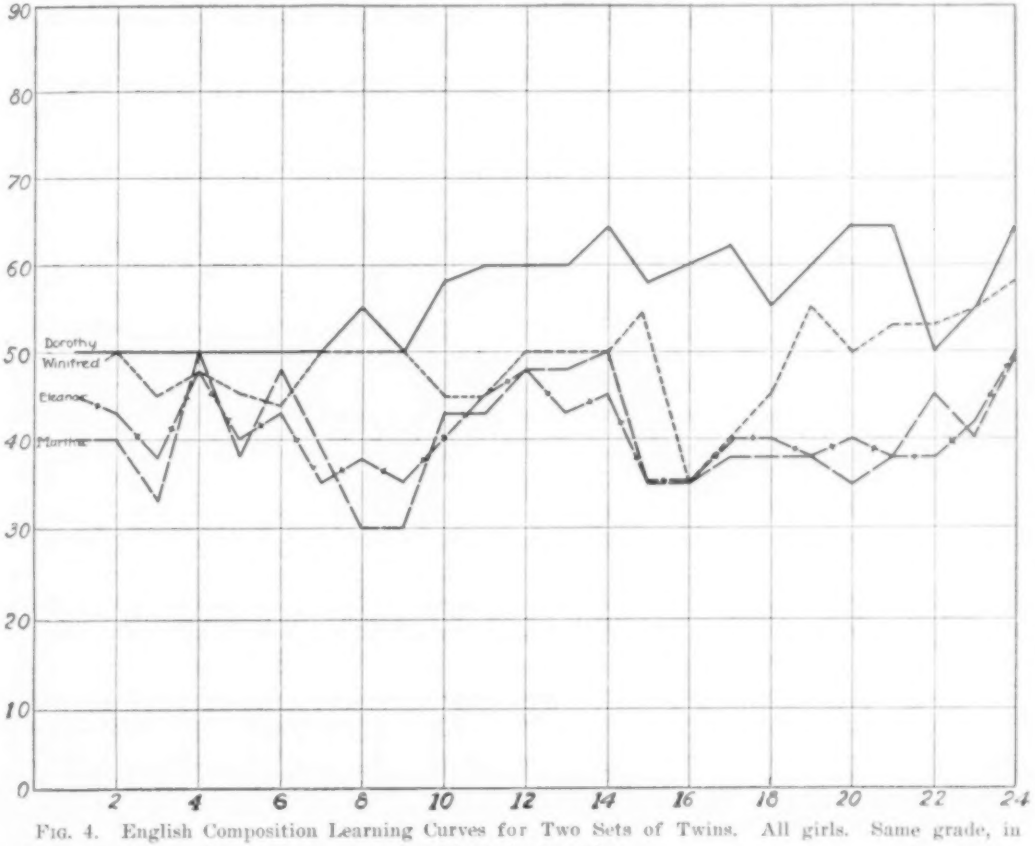

FIG. 4. English Composition Learning Curves for Two Sets of Twins. All girls. Same grade, in charge of same teacher. Wrote on same subject at same time.

is is not apparent. The course of study in composition, the crowding of the program at this point, the lack of motivation, the pressure of work in formal grammar, the lack of supervision in this grade suggest themselves as possible clues. Whatever the cause, the use of the scale has served to locate an educational disease, a subtle malady which common observation would certainly have overlooked. It provides an essential step in diagnosis and from this point the supervisor may proceed to further examination. By all the claims of ethics he can not ignore the demonstrated facts.

To illustrate where further examination may lead, let me cite a case of three children, two girls and a boy, whose work came under my observation. The teacher had set for these children the writing of twenty compositions. For the first four they chose their own subjects; for the next twelve they reproduced in their own words stories which were read to them, and for a final four they wrote again on subjects of their own choosing. The results[4] for the three are shown herewith, Fig. 5, each section of the curve representing the average scores for four successive themes. Probably the most striking fact about these curves is the change from the first to the second period of work. While the children were writing on subjects of their own choosing, girl *A* averaged 365 Hillegas scale points, girl *B*, 310 points and the boy, 355. When the shift in assignments was made and they were asked to reproduce stories read, the girl with the highest score improved her work a hundred points while both the others dropped, the boy 35 and the girl 70 points. At the third stage and again in the fourth, the superior girl lost by successive steps until she was but little better than at the beginning. The inferior girl regained somewhat but in neither of these stages did she equal her initial ability. The boy apparently became poorer by every theme which he wrote until he was 65 points below his beginning. But note the recoil of all three pupils when they were again allowed to choose for themselves. All the curves rise above any previous mark, the girls' to 420 and 385 respectively and the boy's to 370 being 55, 75 and 15 points respectively above the initial marks. Viewing merely the two ends of the practise period, the effort at learning would seem to have been worth while. When we see the process in its entirety there appears very grave doubt about the usefulness of the three intermediate periods of work. If they were not sheer waste it was because of some recondite influence not apparent in the work at the time. Neither teachers nor supervisors can rest content with work of this sort.

For the purpose of this discussion I have chosen to use the composition problem because it is usually regarded as the one least amenable to scientific treatment. Should we, however, turn to certain other fields of elementary or secondary instruction the relation of measurements and diagnosis to the work of supervision becomes easier of demonstration. I have recently had occasion to measure primary reading in the practise departments of two state normal schools. In one of these schools there was a very definite attempt to teach the children the meaning and pronunciation of words through a phonic system. In the other school they did not look with favor upon such a system but were seeking "to develop power" on the part of the children. The testing was done with a modification of the Jones primary reading test. The results showed that the children in the first school knew practically every word in the test; in the latter the children knew less

[4] The writer is indebted to Mr. O. M. Shekell for the data represented in Fig. 5.

than half, although they had actually had a longer period in school. Whatever "powers" this group had developed, power over words was not one of them, and the teaching method in use was clearly deficient as measured by this vocabulary test. It is, of course, conceivable that the children may acquire during their first year in school some other ability more important than the power to recognize words, but surely this

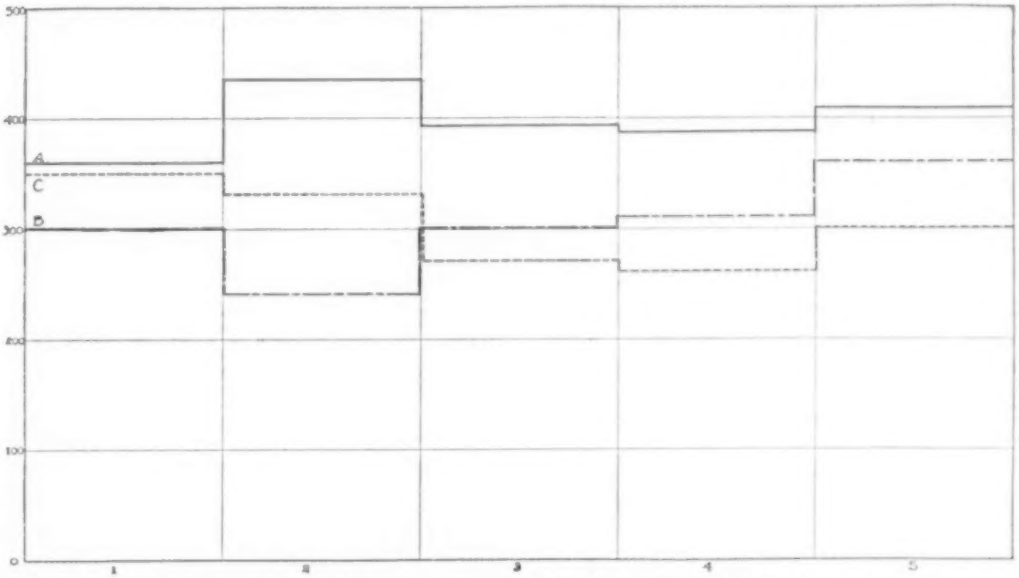

FIG. 5. English Composition. Practise curves of three elementary-school children. Figures on ordinate indicate Hillegas scale values. Figures on abscissa, the successive periods of practise. Each period covers four successive days of composition writing.

one is very important and the supervisor is always justified in seeing that the children get it. Any method which does not produce it is at once on the defensive and the least duty of supervision in the case is a further examination of the situation. A method of instruction must stand or fall by the results it produces and the supervisor's criterion of result is some standard instrument of measurement.

It seems hardly necessary to carry this discussion into all the fields where tests and scales have been developed. Wherever a child is learning to read, spell, write or solve problems there is likely to be a supervisor's task. It may be the adaptation of subject-matter, the classification of the pupil, the measurement of his progress, the analysis of causes making for economic learning, the evaluation and improvement of teaching method, the estimation of the teacher's efficiency, the determination of mediate aims or any one of a thousand details growing out of these more general problems. Whatever the problem may be, it is difficult to see how the supervisor can approach it on a reflective and intellectual level without such definite knowledge of conditions as are attainable only through accurate measurement. With definite and continuously verifiable facts before him, the supervisor can approach his task with the same spirit as does the engineer when he sets out to bridge a stream. With instruments for the measurement of progress he can observe the effect of his treatment

with the same insight and skill as does the physician watching his patient under a scientifically prescribed treatment. What a level is to an engineer, the reading scales may be to the supervisor. What a thermometer is to a physician, the Courtis arithmetic tests may be to the supervisor. What the chemical analysis of the soil is to the agriculturist, the educational diagnosis of a child, a class or a school system may be to the educational engineer.

A few days ago I spoke to a group of superintendents. A gentleman came to me afterwards to say that I was much mistaken about the importance of these radical ideas. They were interesting, no doubt, and especially to college professors remote from the real problems of the school, but that if I had a closer contact with the duties of teaching and supervision I would understand that teaching is an art and not a science, that the important factors in education are quite beyond the range of accurate measurement and that excessive emphasis upon definiteness in educational procedure will render it unfortunately mechanical.

I am not unmindful of the danger lurking here. It is the frailty of some minds that the acceptance of one idea effectually dispels all others. The incoming of science renders them incapable of common sense and a single definite and incontrovertible fact overwhelms all their previous training and insight. It is a normal thing for teachers to emphasize in their teaching whatever is made definite in supervision and if a greater amount of time is given to the fundamentals of arithmetic after the supervisor has used the Courtis arithmetic tests, the issue is one we could have fairly predicted beforehand. The corrective for such partial emphasis is not, however, to leave the aims and achievements of teaching obscure. It is rather to develop definite aims and standards for the whole round of school subjects, to establish a balanced set of educational ideals for every step of progress from the kindergarten to the university, wherein each important skill and bit of knowledge shall have its adequate recognition. Such achievement, though remote, is at least, conceivable, and it is only in some such completed system that the immediately available scales and tests will play their real part.

But two things should be said in further reply to the charge that definiteness in teaching will render it mechanical. First, there is already much mechanical teaching in our schools, due not to the presence of exact knowledge but to a slavish acceptance of educational theory, and the irresistible pressure of teaching habits acquired in a superficial professional preparation and by the trial and error method of actual practise. Those teachers and supervisors who now "wallow in the slough of methodology" are in little danger of being made more "wooden" than they are and there is just the bare possibility that the injection of a few real facts into their unilluminated minds might break the grip of habit and freshen their work.

The second point in reply is that the really able teacher or supervisor is not hampered in his work by knowing exactly what he is doing. It is an altogether mistaken view of art to imagine that it is independent of measurements. An architect is not a man who wishes blocks of stone into beautiful buildings. He must preserve exact relations of strength and stress if his building is to stand. He must keep proportions of line to line with mathematical accuracy if the finished structure is to please the eye. His personality, which is thought to be so fundamental a fact in art, will find its expression only through the medium of units and scales as exact as science can make them.

If you reply to this that the architect must work with physical material and it is because of this that his instruments of measurement are applicable, it is only necessary to turn to the art of music which surely deals with human facts. Think what a symphony would be if it were robbed of its measured qualities. Think of the measured lengths of notes, the measured tensity of tone, the exact time adjustment of one instrument to another, implying a thousand minor facts, related to each other with a delicately mathematical precision. We say "the director interpreted the symphony in a new way," but this form of statement should not obscure the essential fact, that the symphony and the orchestra exist only by virtue of exactly measured relations, and a mastery of fundamental technique by both player and director is the only basis upon which freedom of expression can be founded.

No, art is not independent of definitely measured elements. Rather, are definitely determined factors the very basis upon which a real art can be founded. In their absence you have only spontaneous activity and instinctive adjustment. If education, therefore, ever becomes a perfected art it will be when we understand the material with which we deal as exactly as the architect understands his stone, the musician his instrument or a writer the function of words. It will be when the laws of psychology are as dependable as the laws of physics, and when the measured facts of science are made the basis of practise in education in the same spirit as measured units of time are basic in the art of music. Education an art! Yes, in time—when educational investigation shall have unearthed its basic facts.

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"WORLD VISION"—ONE REASON WHY OUR COLLEGE STUDENTS DO NOT HAVE IT

IT is quite the thing nowadays for our college faculties, especially those in theology, to storm at students through interminable chapel periods about "world vision." Judging by the ordinary expression of the listeners, they would not know whether to bring a bucket or a cage to carry it away in if delivered to them. If we may define this vision as the habit of weighing events with imagination, judicial poise and the scientific spirit, it is indeed a rare thing in the world. If bland and innocuous solutions for such phenomena as the European War, for example, may be used as criteria, one is led to suspect some very venerable faculty men in this regard.

Not long ago, a weekly magazine propounded to its readers these two questions:

(1) Of all you were taught at school what has proved most useful to you in after life? (2) What have you had to learn since leaving school which you might have been taught there?

Sifting the vast and variegated mass of replies, the editors published forty-five representative extracts.[1]

In all this mass of appreciations and criticisms of school work, it is rather striking that nobody said anything against his history courses, while only one had a timid word of commendation. This naïve contributor admitted that "not history outlines, not dates, not names she used to make us learn, but the spirit of her face went home," leading him to "pastures of thought" where he "finally learned to live." The only thing which rescued the subject, in this solitary case, from the utter Nirvana of things which are as though they had never been, was the charming personality of the lady teacher. In a word, the place of the historical "training" of these people in their after lives very

[1] *Independent*, June 12, 1916.

nearly approximated absolute oblivion. It was not even an aching void—they were not conscious of having either gained or missed anything. Like the Lewis and Clark map which was recently exhumed after a hundred years of slumbrous forgetfulness in the Indian Affairs office, the student files away his dusty knowledge where there is small danger of its disturbing or being disturbed as the years of his busy life roll away.

The historians need at least a mild dose of the scientific method—we must not make the treatment too drastic at the outset. In the first place, their definition of the field varies all the way from nebulous vagueness to complete dogmatism. The preface of a popular text for college freshmen avers that history is "all that we know about everything that man has ever done, or thought, or hoped, or felt." This is as comprehensive as the sermon which "touched on the world, dwelt on the flesh, and passed on to the devil." One searches in vain for anything not included in its modest sweep. Another almost equally well-known text affirms in its introduction that history is chiefly concerned with politics. The first of these treatises is a blunderbuss which sprinkles the entire landscape without bringing down any birds. It has no definite central idea. Instead of trying to present an organized body of information to a definite group, known to be able to assimilate it, it aims at teaching *anybody* the general principles of *everything*. The second writer achieves his dreary end—his book is a creditable catalogue of a museum of political skeletons, arranged in chronological order. The courses may be better than the books, but in general it is too much to expect.

History must abandon its medieval pretensions as a teacher of all things to all men. The modern preacher is almost a parallel case. The time was when he could interpret almost anything to large audiences without fear of contradiction or criticism. In the present state of learning, he can scarcely face a congregation which does not contain individuals who know more about psychology than he does, others who know more about biology, still others philosophy, and so on. The day of the general oracle is gone forever. Pious students of education know that in any church will be found all ages and the most diverse interests—natural groups, each with its own peculiar thought processes and approachable through no other channels. So in modern times they are split up into such groups. The classified Bible school has largely superseded the public haranguer as a teaching agency. But history teaching is leagues behind even this preliminary advance. Men who admit their ignorance of sociology, biology, economics or psychology are still trying, in the most reputable schools in the country, to interpret phenomena which, if one would get back to first principles, absolutely involve those sciences. The worst of it is that in their classes sit men who are making a life study of one or another of these very subjects.

Biological facts are taught in our schools in the connection in which they must be recalled. Even in the languages, the scientific students are separated from the literary, with different teachers in charge. The same thing must be done in history courses, if the subject is ever to have any considerable practical or cultural value. The premedical men who are pushed by the well-meaning authorities into classes in the political development of England have a right to feel aggrieved. They will probably pass —such students are usually serious people— but are certain to cherish a vindictive hatred for the subject to the end of their erring pilgrimages here below.

History must do two things to make itself thoroughly and deservedly respectable in the college curriculum. First it must do what every science has found necessary —develop a first course which shall deal with the general principles. This course must sweep the whole field, and use its facts merely as illustrative material. The ground has already been covered after a fashion, before the student left the high school, and there is an end to the profitable picking of dry bones. The writer can furnish a list of 250 events in world history which will be fuller and better than that reposing in the memory of the average college graduate. He can also indicate a simple memorizing device whereby any person with a memory which will attain 40 per cent. on the usual laboratory tests for retentiveness can memorize those events in an hour a day for one week. The remainder of the year can be given over entirely to making certain that the student grasps and appreciates the meaning of historical phenomena.

The second thing which must be done is to get specialists to reach the group minds. Imagine the ministerial person often chosen by our denominational schools for the purpose—memory is better still, if you are so unfortunate—imagine him as teaching history to a group of budding scientists. It is not even funny—it is pathetic. The common Texas horned toad has about as fulsome a comprehension of the contents of their minds.

On the other hand, try to conjure up a picture of a scientist trying to teach them. We will suppose that to clinch their ideas of the time element in human affairs, he illustrates with the history of chemistry. Some one back in the dawn of things learned to use a chemical and to recognize it. Others used it also, and in time began to notice unexplained but uniform reactions. These suggested principles—laws—and the science made a step forward. The new generation grasped at once what it took many men millenniums to develop. The scientific student, given such familiar illustrative material, sees as a matter of course what the ordinary history instructor struggles in vain to convey—(1) the significance of the time factor; (2) the importance of cumulative human effort. Tell him that man as an individual is not superior to the ancient Egyptian—refer him to Alfred Russel Wallace, a scientist, for proof. When the facts come at him horizontally from his own field, their entry will be free from the usual anguish. Providence placed the openings in the human head on the sides—it is pretty hard to intrude anything useful from above. A scientific student will not have to grapple very hard with the reason why it is possible to gain a knowledge of chemistry in a year which would have astonished the great Lavoisier of a century ago. Often the student is a better historian than the teacher.

Students are disappointingly narrow in vision because their historical training is almost absolutely worthless. In order to redeem that class of instruction from its present state of desuetude, we must put the student's historical data in files which are likely to be opened later. This can be done only by specialists as teachers, men of respectable scientific training to teach history to the future scientists, and so on. We must "fire" all the "inspired idiots" who try to make history a scrap-book of the chronological junk and gossipy details rejected by the other departments. The only rational rejoinder to some of the elaborate unravelings of the doings of nonentities is "Well, suppose they did!"

We have too many students who have put off thinking "what next" to the day of taking their A.B. degrees. Nearly every

school has them by the dozen, on the verge of graduation, searching wildly for teaching jobs, with apparently no thought of whether the future of those positions contains anything whatever. An early specialization in more fields will force upon them just so much sooner the necessity of choosing a goal in life and organizing to go after it, instead of joining the mob which never looks into the gasoline tank till the engine stops.

Let us hope that such an association with scientists would have a salubrious effect on the historians. Many of our historical writers are not as careful about facts as they should be. The department head in one of our well-known institutions speaks glibly in a widely read book of a treaty which the state department assures us does not and never did exist. If a scientist should make such a mistake as that, it would be his last in reputable publications.

The historians as a rule are not so disrespectful toward facts; but the flagrant carelessness with which most of them draw conclusions from their data needs rubbing up by contact with science. The majority are evidently blissfully oblivious of the checks on material, in the sense in which the scientist thinks of them. A biologist friend of mine spent six months checking the data for one brief paper, after having it all gathered. He classified his material into (1) reliable and acceptable facts, (2) facts which are apparently plausible, but either need more experimental checks, or are not subject to any such check, and (3) speculative material, furnishing food for thought, but susceptible to other interpretation. His first class of facts were tested for interpretation as well—whether they covered the case and pointed unerringly to the one conclusion; he even examined the secondary experiments themselves, to make sure that they did not create abnormal conditions which might lead to false conclusions. The second category of facts mentioned above, he submitted to a large number of his fellow workers. If even a very small minority rejected his conclusions, he took note of the reason—whether on general grounds, due to innate conservatism, or supposed flaws in the data or the sequence of ideas. The third class, speculative data, he put in a separate chapter, so labeled that no semi-intelligent person need mistake it for that which it was not. Here, in the realm of drawing conclusions, the historians have got to be jarred out of their complacency. The really respectable number of them who now handle their material with probity and discrimination must organize better and set a sharper limit to the number of inexcusable errors a man's reputation can survive. Checking over the naïve and mendacious accounts of prescientific generations is a problem appreciated already by the better workers.

When students come to feel the same confidence in their historians which they place in the scientists, and when pertinent, practical, well-ascertained conclusions are shoved into the learner's consciousness at the point where they are to be drawn out—then and not until then, will "world vision" cease to be an affliction and take its place as a possession. Then, and not until then, will suspicion on the part of those who have it not and do not claim it give place to confidence.

Perhaps not all the historians will agree with us. We are reminded of Zadig's remark: "What is so venerable as ancient abuses?"

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EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

THE EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN ENGLAND

THE British Ministry of Labor has issued the report of a conference which was recently held at the Ministry of Labor Employment De-

partment, under the chairmanship of Mr. R. A. Bray, chairman of the London Advisory Committee on Juvenile Employment, and which was called mainly to discuss a memorandum prepared by Mr. Bray on the problem of juvenile employment after the war.

According to an abstract in the London *Times* Educational Supplement Mr. Bray, in his memorandum, pointed out that the mobilization of industry has made a great change of occupations among juveniles with some decrease in the opportunity for training. The health and character of the juvenile worker has suffered in varying degrees in different areas. The after-war problem must be controlled both in respect to the rate of discharge and to the individuals discharged, and knowledge must be acquired as to the demand for juvenile labor and for this purpose the cooperation of the employers is necessary. The number of entrants from the school to the labor market must be checked by limiting the labor of children still at school, by raising the school age to fourteen, with the abolition of all exemptions and fixed dates for leaving, by the institution of continuation schools to the age of sixteen and the limitation of hours of work for young persons under eighteen. Moreover, the minds of children in abnormal labor must now be prepared by after-care visitors and others for the new conditions and lower wages after the war. For some of those who will be discharged work will be found; for the residue an alternative occupation by way of classes must be found till work can be provided and so prevent many grave evils and bring the children under good influence at the various centers or clubs. Children attending such classes would have maintenance grants and priority in securing permanent work.

Lively discussion arose as regards the necessity of approaching employers with a view to inducing them (*a*) to notify discharges of juveniles in advance; (*b*) to notify all vacancies to Juvenile Employment Committees during the period of demobilization; and (*c*) to consider and formulate schemes of apprenticeship and training. The conference felt that some arrangement should be made which would prevent the children from wandering from one employer to another in search of work, and that every effort should be made to provide training for young people engaged in industry. It was decided that the London (Central) Advisory Committee should approach the Ministry of Munitions, the Reconstruction Committee of the Cabinet, the Ministry of Labor, and possibly the Board of Trade, in the matter, and that an urgent appeal should be made to employers. In view of the dislocation of industry likely to occur during the period of the transfer of labor from "war" work to other work, the conference agreed that it was highly desirable that centers for unemployed boys and girls should be provided during the demobilization period. It was decided that the London (Central) Advisory Committee should refer the general question of the provision of premises and workers to the Reconstruction Committee of the Cabinet, the Ministry of Munitions, and the Ministry of Labor. It was also decided to suggest to the Reconstruction Committee that the War Office be asked to demobilize teachers immediately on the conclusion of peace. As regards the question of limiting the number of children entering the labor market, it was agreed that every effort should be made to persuade children attaining the school-leaving age to remain at school. Heated discussion took place on the proposals for the prohibition of employment for wages of children liable to attend school, and on this point it was necessary to take a vote, the result of which showed a majority of 30 in favor of total prohibition. As regards the question of the limitation of hours of employment immediately on the declaration of peace, and the raising of the compulsory age for attendance at school, a general agreement was arrived at.

SCHOOLS AND FOOD PRODUCTION

In rural sections of the country, farm work is the most active and inveterate enemy of school attendance, according to the August number of the Child Labor *Bulletin* which is devoted mainly to a discussion of the effect of farm work on school attendance in times both of peace and of war. The first study was made in Oklahoma last year and was completed before the United States entered the war. It is

part of the broad survey of the employment of children on farms the National Child Labor Committee is making and is representative of conditions existing in normal times.

It was found in Oklahoma that farm work was responsible for more absences from school than all other causes combined—73,121 days of absence being attributed to it and only 44,148 days to illness, the next largest group. "This shows how serious a factor labor is in the breaking down of rural school attendance," says the report, "especially as the total of days absent is much more than a third of the total days present." The result of absence due to farm work is shown most clearly in the figures for retardation given in the report. Fifty-one per cent. of the farm workers are behind in their grades, while less than 25 per cent. of those absent because of illness, distance, and bad weather were retarded and only 12.6 per cent. of those who attended regularly. "When in connection with the fact that farm workers progress most slowly it is remembered that they lose more school time than all the other groups combined, we are confronted by a relation showing a logical sequence," says the report. "Children can not do good school work unless they attend regularly and the oftener they are absent the lower their standing will be." To meet the situation the report recommends that the compulsory education law be strengthened by making it apply to the entire term instead of to only two thirds of it, as is the case at present, and that a larger unit of organization than the local district be adopted as it is impossible to have the law enforced where local officials have to prosecute their own neighbors if they make any attempt to enforce it.

The tendency of war to aggravate the conditions found in normal times is brought out in another article on "The Child's Part in Food Production," based on an inquiry into the extent to which children have been excused from school to engage in agriculture as a patriotic service. Much was said last spring of the necessity for using school children to solve the farm labor problem and many school superintendents acted at once on the suggestion. "There can be no question of the patriotic motives that led the state superintendents of education to advise local officials to excuse children from school for farm work," says the report, "but there is very grave question whether the action taken by those officials was not short-sighted patriotism which will do the country more harm than good." In most of the states investigated by the committee it was found that children were permitted to leave without any preliminary inquiry into the need for their services, investigation of the places they were to work, provision for keeping track of them to know how many had left and where they were, or physical examination of those who left to see that they were strong enough to do farm work. As a result few superintendents of education had any idea how many children were excused, where they were, how much they were paid, what conditions they were living under, or whether they would ever return to school. The report points out that if the school officials are permitted to join with the farmer in putting crops before school attendance without any attempt to safeguard the children, conditions found to exist in normal times will be greatly aggravated and at the end of the war the younger generation, on whom will fall the burden of carrying on the work of the country, will be handicapped by lack of sufficient education and premature labor. In England it was found that wherever adequate wages were offered there were enough adults available to make it unnecessary to use young children on the farms.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORK OF THE FOOD CONSERVATION BUREAU

In planning its campaign the Food Conservation Bureau of the United States Food Administration has realized the importance of the public school as a medium for the dissemination of the ideas which are "to modify the food habits of the one hundred million of our people." It has therefore sought the cooperation of state universities and colleges in order to have the food conservation program reach as large a number of students as possible. A ten-lesson course in conservation was prepared by a committee of domestic science experts, among whom the Department of Agri-

culture, the Bureau of Education and the United States Food Administration were represented. Every state, except one where there was no summer school, was organized, and cooperation was universally cordial. Six hundred and thirty-three schools received copies of the course, and several hundred thousand students were reached.

In addition to giving the ten lesson course to summer schools, teachers' institutes were asked to aid in the work. Letters were written to state superintendents, to presidents of state universities and agricultural colleges, and county commissioners, and to each of these a food conservation syllabus was sent. Replies to date have shown enthusiastic cooperation. During the first week there were requests for 28,000 copies of the lessons for institutes held during August, and requests since then have more than doubled that number.

Of the first edition of these lessons, numbers I.–V., there have been distributed 12,000 copies; of numbers VI.–X., 10,000 copies. With these have been distributed 145,000 broadsides on food conservation. A new edition of 400,000 copies of Lessons I.–X., inclusive, in one pamphlet, is in press, and orders have already been received for more than half the edition.

With a realization of the enduring need of a conservation program on a broad and fundamental basis the United States Food Administration is planning with the cooperation of the Bureau of Education to place in the schools a course of study which shall be incorporated not as an emergency measure, but as a permanent problem and integral part of our freshened educational aims.

The Bureau of Education will therefore publish, on the first of October and each month thereafter up to June, a bulletin of family and civic economics. The material will be in the form of reading and study courses for elementary and high-school grades, and will cover all the topics that enter into community life. These lessons are intended to stimulate closer cooperation between the school and the community in general in solving the problems of our democracy.

Professor Charles H. Judd, dean of the school of education at the University of Chicago, has charge of the preparation of these lessons. Under his supervision, a staff of experienced teachers and educational editors will collect and arrange the necessary material.

THE BUDGET OF THE NEW YORK CITY SCHOOLS

A GENERAL request for the appropriation of $5,000,000 for the extension of the Gary plan to the entire school system formed the principal item in the tentative budget estimate for 1918 which was adopted at a recent meeting of the New York Board of Education. The budget declares that this amount of money is required for "the remodeling and enlarging of buildings, for the construction of new buildings, for the furnishing and equipping of such buildings, and for the acquisition of land."

The budget estimate, so far as the general and special school funds are concerned, calls for an appropriation of $43,599,834.79, or an increase of $2,169,387.30 over the appropriation of 1917. Amendments were adopted including an appropriation of $260,000 to meet the cost of raising the minimum salaries for elementary-school teachers. At present teachers do not receive $900 until the end of five years.

President William G. Willcox originally recommended an increase of the minimum salary to $900 from the first year in service. The finance committee amended his recommendation to provide for an increase of the minimum salary to $800 for the first three years on temporary licenses and to $900 for the second three years on permanent licenses. In this form the recommendation was adopted.

Another amendment to the budget provided for an appropriation of $78,000 for the teaching of English to foreigners in the high schools. This was also passed. The board then took under consideration a resolution providing for a 10 per cent. increase in the compensation of janitors, based on their pres-

ent salaries. This would mean an increase to the budget of $78,000. The resolution was laid over for further consideration.

Two further recommendations with reference to salary increases made by President Willcox were unanimously adopted by the board. One of them provided for an increase of about 50 cents a day in the pay of "additional teachers," and the other for a new schedule of salaries for regular shop-work teachers with a minimum of $1,200 and a maximum of $2,160, reached in the thirteenth year by annual increments of $80. The first recommendation means an increase of $36,000 to the budget and the second an increase of $95,000.

The tentative budget estimate as presented by the finance committee prior to the discussion of amendments placed the grand total of the appropriations recommended for the coming year, including $5,000,000 for the Gary system and $1,000,000 for the building of a new high school in Brownsville, at $49,599,334.79. In explaining the $2,000,000 increase in the regular budget for 1918 Howard L. McBain, chairman of the finance committee, said:

> In the preparation of the tentative budget estimate for 1918 the Committee on Finance has faced an unusually difficult proposition. In the first place, we are in the midst of war. This means, as every one knows, an era of unheard of and, at the present time, unmeasurable taxation. The public schools must not be crippled on this account. On the contrary, there was never a time when the work of the schools should be pushed with more vigor and intelligent purpose.
>
> From the original proposals which came to us the Committee on Finance has cut from the General School Fund nearly $900,000, and from the Special School Fund considerably in excess of $600,000, a total of more than a million and a half dollars.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

DR. FRANK L. MCVEY, president of the State University of North Dakota, has been elected president of the University of Kentucky.

PROFESSOR W. W. CHARTERS, dean of the school of education of the University of Missouri, has accepted the position of professor of educational administration at the University of Illinois.

AT the last session of the Iowa State legislature an annual appropriation of $25,000 was granted for the establishment of a Child-welfare Research Station as an integral part of the State University for the scientific study of normal children. Dr. Bird T. Baldwin, of Swarthmore College and the Johns Hopkins University, has been selected as director and research professor of educational psychology. Detailed, intensive, consecutive studies will be made in the physical, mental and social development of children.

THE Chicago Board of Education, on the recommendation of Superintendent J. D. Shoop, made, on August 31, the following appointments:

Dr. Frank G. Bruner, of the child study department, to be director of special schools, at a salary of $4,500.

Peter C. Mortenson, superintendent of the parental school, to be assistant superintendent of schools, at an initial salary of $5,000.

William M. Roberts, district superintendent, to be assistant superintendent of schools in charge of evening and vacation schools, vocational training and apprentice classes, at a salary of $5,500.

William H. Campbell to be examiner in the department of examinations, at a salary of $5,000.

Fred E. Smith, principal of the Von Humboldt School, to be superintendent of the parental school to succeed Peter A. Mortenson, at a salary of $4,000.

DR. ROBERT J. ALEY, as president of the National Education Association, has appointed as a National Red Cross Committee the following persons: Dr. John H. Finley, Commissioner of Education for New York, N. Y., *chairman;* Hon. M. L. Brittain, commissioner of education, Atlanta, Georgia; Hon. Francis G. Blair, state superintendent of public instruction, Springfield, Ill.; Mrs. Margaret S. McNaught, commissioner for elementary schools, San Francisco, Cal.; Hon. M. Bates Stephen, state superintendent of education, Baltimore, Md.

EDWARD B. SELLEW, of Thompsonville, Conn., has been elected superintendent of schools at Middletown, Conn., to succeed W.

A. Wheatley, who has resigned to undertake the organization of the social and recreational activities of the soldiers in the United States cantonment near Charlotte, N. C.

IRA M. ALLEN, who had been for three years principal of the high school, Springfield, Ill., has been elected superintendent of the schools of the city.

MR. S. M. BARRETT, of Claremore, has been appointed secretary of the Oklahoma State Board of Education. Mr. Barrett as executive officer will be entrusted with the administration and supervision of all vocational schools in Oklahoma conducted under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Law.

DR. E. H. GREENBARK, principal of the high school in Norwalk, Conn., has been elected to succeed Superintendent J. W. Kratzer as superintendent of schools.

MISS JANET RANKIN, secretary of the Wisconsin Service League, has been selected to take charge of school research work at Evanston, Ill., under Superintendent E. A. Farmer.

FREDERICK STEPHEN BREED, of the University of Michigan, has been appointed assistant professor in the department of education at the school of education of the University of Chicago.

DR. GEORGE R. WELLS, associate professor of psychology in Oberlin College, has been appointed to a new professorship of psychology at Ohio Wesleyan University.

PROFESSOR CLARENCE M. CASE, of Penn college, has resigned to accept an associate professorship in the newly created school of commerce at the Iowa State University. He is the second appointee provided for in an appropriation of $25,000 by the last legislature. The appointment of Dr. H. B. Whaling, formerly a professor at North Dakota's university, was announced in July.

THE Provisional Government at Petrograd has authorized the admission of women to all forms of state service on the same conditions as men. Countess Panin, who for a time was assistant minister of social tutelage, has been appointed secretary of state for public instruction.

AT the University of Chicago, Dr. John Foote Norton has been appointed assistant professor of hygiene and bacteriology. The following hae been appointed to instructorships: Clarence Edwin Ayres, philosophy; Leverett S. Lyon, commerce and administration; Fred T. Rogers, of Baylor University, physiology; Clark Owen Melick, preventive medicine; Gerald L. Wendt, Leo Finkelstein, and Thomas Dale Stewart, chemistry; Frank H. Knight, political economy; Clara B. Knapp, household art; Susannah B. Usher and Evelyn G. Halliday, home economics; Clarence L. Clarke, education; Arthur J. Dempster and Wilmer H. Souder, physics; Katherine L. Cronin, physical instruction; and Benjamin I. Clawson, hygiene and bacteriology.

REV. SAMUEL WARD BOARDMAN, D.D., who from 1889 till 1901 was president of Maryville College in Tennessee, died on August 30 at his home in Bloomfield, N. J., aged eighty-seven years.

DISCUSSION AND CORRESPONDENCE

COUNTY MACHINERY FOR COLORED SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH

IT may be interesting to readers of SCHOOL AND SOCIETY to know just how the Slater and Jeanes Funds are working in cooperation with the public school authorities for improving the small rural schools for colored children in the south. For I take it that readers of SCHOOL AND SOCIETY apply the title quite as much to the colored families of the rural south as to the families whose doings are recorded in society columns. I visited recently nine colored families on a plantation in Alabama. They are living on the ragged edge of nothing. You could not see worse poverty in the narrowest streets of Naples. Part of the trouble lies in conditions outside of themselves, part in their own ignorance and laziness. But is it not hard to blame laziness where there is so little of knowledge or incentive or hope?

To bring knowledge, incentive, and hope is the problem of the country school. The church and the school are the two means, but the church in the country, with some hopeful

exceptions, still preaches that citizenship is in heaven, and generally neglects the insignificant problems of this life. The work must be done by the schools. It is the school that must teach these poor folk to have and cultivate a garden, to cook the stuff, to make and mend their clothes, to keep their rooms clean, and to trim their kerosene lamps. The country school must not only teach the children, but through clubs of mothers and fathers the country teachers must help the present generation.

The Jeanes Fund was established ten years ago by Miss Anna T. Jeanes, a little Quaker lady of Philadelphia. She died soon after making her gift of a million dollars. Her idea was to help the small country schools. Strange that among all the philanthropists it should have been left to this woman to make the gift most needed. The way in which the resources of her gift have been used is as follows: A small sum has been put into the hands of the county superintendent for the employment of a teacher trained at Hampton, Tuskegee, or in some school where home industries have been taught. This supervising teacher goes her rounds to the small rural schools of the county and introduces and supervises simple forms of industrial work. Sometimes she finds the teacher of the one-room school able to carry on the work in her absence. Sometimes she has to do all this kind of teaching herself. Sometimes, through the good services of the county superintendent, she gets all the county teachers together and instructs them how to do the work. Incidentally, on her rounds, she organizes the fathers and mothers for school and home improvement. Incidentally she helps and encourages the local teachers who are off in the background, and are in sore need of help and encouragement.

During the session ending June 30, 1917, there were 189 of these supervising teachers in as many counties, as many as the Fund, by spending every available dollar of its resources, and with the help of $10,000 from the General Education Board, could afford. With remarkably few exceptions these supervising teachers, during the nine years of the work, have been splendidly faithful and efficient. I do not know where, in all the history of education, a more devoted and self-sacrificing body of women could be found. I shall never forget meeting one of them when I was driving one day on a country road. She was tramping, because the man who was to take her had failed to appear, tramping with her kit of materials, eight miles to keep an appointment. Some of them have managed to get their own team. Some counties have donated a team. Generally they manage to get from school to school through the kindness of the patrons. Last session, according to their monthly reports, they visited 5,361 country schools, and raised $124,439 for school improvement. The total amount paid them for salaries was $61,785, of which the county public-school authorities paid $23,693, and the Fund $38,092. In the first four years of the work, in fewer counties, the Fund paid the whole of the salaries. After seeing the benefit of the work for four years the counties were willing to help. The Fund has never cooperated in any county without the application of the county superintendent, and has never paid a cheque that was not countersigned by the county superintendent.

The Slater Fund was established in 1882. It is twice as large as the Jeanes Fund, but only during the past five years has it undertaken to enter directly into the work of the country schools. That it has now begun to do so is due mainly to the initiative of the county superintendents. I take great pleasure in saying this, because I welcome any opportunity of paying tribute to these county superintendents. For the real good of the people there is no more important office than that of county superintendent, and taken as a whole there is no more intelligent, liberal-minded, and forward-looking body of men in the south.

These superintendents saw two needs in their counties in dealing with their difficult problem. They saw the need of having in the county at least one well-graded school, to which the best pupils might go from the little

one-room schools, and in which there might be some instruction and training for the preparation of teachers for the small schools of the county. Of course the preparation which they had in mind, reaching only through the eighth, ninth or tenth grade, would not be very extensive, but far better than the preparation which most of the strictly rural teachers now have.

So it was that through the application of a few superintendents the plan of establishing what are called county training schools was begun. The state superintendents gave their hearty approval. The arrangement agreed upon was that the Slater Fund would give $500 annually for salaries, on condition that the county give $750 for the same purpose, and that the school should belong to the county and be a part of the regular public-school system. In the first year there were four, and in four years the number increased to forty-two. All of them have industrial work as well as the usual academic work, and in the highest grade, whether it be the eighth, ninth, or tenth, there is a bit of special preparation for teaching. For promoting the industrial work very important assistance has come during the past two years from the General Education Board in providing the necessary equipment.

The schools have five or more teachers, and it should be stated that while the amount to be appropriated by the counties for pay of teachers is $750, the average is a little more than $1,000. The plan is to have a teachers' home attached to each school. The average amount of land owned by the schools is about 6 acres. All of the schools already have pupils from various parts of the county, some from adjoining counties. Some of the pupils beyond walking distance are driven to the school each day, some find lodging in neighboring houses. Two or three of the schools use some nearby house as a boarding place.

With such a training school, and with the extension work of a supervising teacher going the rounds of the smaller schools, the county superintendent has a pretty good working plan for dealing with a difficult and vastly important problem. The improvement of rural schools, whether for colored children or for white children, is the hardest task in the whole business of education, and in my opinion, at the present time, far the most important.

JAMES H. DILLARD

QUOTATIONS

SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN NEW YORK CITY

IN the budget of the board of education provision has been made, at the desire of President Willcox, for increases in pay for young school teachers which are thoroughly desirable. Instead of beginning at a yearly salary of $720 and obtaining a yearly increase of $60 until the salary becomes $1,500, they would begin at $800, receiving that sum for three years and then $900 a year for a second three-year term. After that their compensation would increase $60 a year until the $1,500 point was reached.

This change, small as it applies to each individual, will make a considerable addition to the total of the city's budget if the board of estimate sanctions it. But there can be no question of its wisdom or of its justice. A school teacher begins work now for the wages of a clerk or stenographer of average competency. Her advancement is strictly limited, no matter how fast she may develop in her work or how valuable her services may become. That is not precisely the way to attract the best kind of material to the city's service. Educational experts know that, whatever curriculum the schools may present, the results obtained inevitably depend on the quality of the teaching staff. No system can be better than the teachers. And the difficulty to-day is not to get teachers, but to get good teachers. More and more, with wide opportunities opened for young women in business and the professions, they are going into other lines of endeavor than school teaching where rewards for merit are surer and swifter and chance of individual advancement is greater. They can not be blamed for that. Living costs are skyrocketing; the girl with initiative and confidence in her knowledge and ability must do the best she can for herself. Good hours, a long vacation period and certain tenure of

office during good behavior can not counterbalance years of toil for small wages.

New York City needs the good material in its teaching staff, not material not good enough to go elsewhere. This good material must be obtained by meeting market conditions. The increases in pay for the young teachers, who are hit hardest by the present scale of wages, are frankly an endeavor to meet the competition of business and the professions. If New York City is to get the brand of teachers it should have, not culls, the new scale should be adopted.—The New York *Times*.

THE WAR AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE education section of the committee on engineering and education of the advisory commission of the Council of National Defense, persuaded of the necessity of securing early advice as to the possible effect of the war on secondary schools and as to the policies which these institutions should adopt in the present emergency, appointed the following committee to act with it in the consideration of these problems:

Robert J. Aley, president University of Maine, president of the N. E. A.
Thomas W. Butcher, Kansas State Normal School.
C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction, Madison, Wis.
C. E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.
R. J. Condon, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Arthur D. Dean, supervising officer of vocational education of the New York State Training Commission.
Wilson Farrand, headmaster Newark Academy.
John C. Garber, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia.
J. Y. Joyner, state superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, N. C.
Calvin N. Kendall, commissioner of education, Trenton, N. J.
J. H. Phillips, superintendent of schools, Birmingham, Ala.
Charles A. Prosser, director Dunwoody Industrial Institute, Minneapolis, Minn.
J. D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.
Payson Smith, commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.
Frank Thompson, assistant superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.

This committee has made the following report:

PREAMBLE

In the crisis that confronts us the schools of the nation should have the single thought to serve their country in the best possible way and to the full extent of their resources, not only in the present emergency but in the years to follow.

Present conditions demand a statement of the principles which should guide those responsible for the conduct of secondary education.

STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES

We accordingly believe, first, that it is of supreme importance that the educational resources of the nation, and particularly our great public school systems, shall be maintained as fully and completely as possible in order that our country may not again go through the sad experiences following the Civil War, or of some of the nations of Europe at the present time, and that the supply of trained and educated men and women may not be largely cut off during the war and after its close.

We believe, second, that it is highly desirable that our schools and colleges shall furnish during the war a continuous supply of men fitted to take positions of leadership in the army, in the industrial world, and in social service, and that to that end students should be encouraged to continue their training up to the point of greatest efficiency rather than to enter service prematurely.

We believe, third, that the schools should make any changes in their courses of study and methods of instruction that will fit their students to share more effectively in meeting the present crisis and our future needs.

We believe, fourth, that in all schools special emphasis should be laid on instruction in thrift and in the avoidance of waste.

RECOMMENDATIONS

I. We recommend that the school year be adjusted in each locality so that the schools

may serve as effectively as possible both the children and the community at large under the changed conditions brought about by the war.

II. To this end we recommend that in the larger cities and wherever else it may be possible to do so to advantage, the schools be kept open for educational and productive effort during the entire year, not only that children who may be called upon during the part of the year for industrial service may have opportunity to attend school at such times as they are free, but also that the school equipment and teaching force for manual and industrial training and home economics may be available for the instruction of adults.

III. We recommend that in agricultural sections the sessions of secondary schools be so fixed as to permit boys and girls to assist in agricultural operations with the least possible interruption of educational work. In the northern states, where the crop-growing period is short, the summer vacation may be lengthened to include the periods of cultivation and harvesting of food crops. To compensate in part for this extension of the summer vacation, the holiday periods occurring during the school year may be shortened or eliminated. In those parts of the country where planting season begins early and the harvest season ends late, high schools may adjust vacations to coincide with the periods in which extra labor is demanded on the farms. In such cases the full amount of school work may be secured through mid-summer sessions or as suggested in Recommendation V.

IV. We recommend that every effort be made to employ teachers of agriculture and home economics for the full year, and that their time during the summer months, and such other time as is not needed in school instruction, shall be utilized in supervising productive work of the boys and girls on the farm and in the home.

V. We recommend that school officers take cognizance of the temptation to leave school which will be presented by the offer of high wages in the industrial pursuits. This temptation may in a measure be offset and the children kept under instruction by the organization of the schools wherever feasible on the part-time basis, as in Fitchburg, Cincinnati and Spartanburg.

VI. We recommend that boys attending secondary schools be advised not to enlist for military or naval service at present or in the immediate future, because the needs of the country will be better served by the assurance of an adequate supply of trained young men in the latter stages of the war and in the industrial reconstruction which must necessarily follow its close.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

WHO'S WHO AMONG COLLEGE TRUSTEES

WHO is in control of the American educational system? The people pay most of the bills, but there remains the question of control. Who selects the superintendents, presidents, principals and teachers? Who has the final say with regard to the course of study and the "institutional policy"?

The answer for the colleges and universities, like the answer for the city schools, is—"Business."

A study[1] of the city school systems of 104 of the largest American cities with a total population of twenty-four millions, showed that among 967 members of Boards of Education, 433 were business men and 333 were professional men, making a total of business and professional men of 766 or over three fourths of the total number of board members. If to this number of business and professional men on the boards of education are added the retired business men and the wives of business men, almost nine tenths of the total number of school-board members belong in the business and professional class. The wage-earners and clerks, who comprise five sixths of the gainfully occupied persons in the ordinary industrial city, were represented by 87 out of a total of 967 board members. Thus the vast

[1] "Who's Who on Our Boards of Education," Scott Nearing, SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, January 20, 1917, Vol. IV., No. 108, pages 89–90.

majority of school-board members represent directly the business and professional interests of the community.

A similar study was made of the occupations of the members of boards of trustees of the American colleges and universities, representing a student enrollment of 500 or more students. There were 189 such institutions listed in the Educational Directory,[2] of which 143 supplied lists showing the occupation of the members of their boards of trustees.[3]

The institutions were divided into three classes—state, private denominational, and private non-denominational. The following table gives a classified statement, showing the size of college boards and the total number of the various classes of colleges.

TABLE I

Boards of Trustees of Certain American Colleges, Classified according to Kind of College and Size of Board

No. of Board Members	State Colleges with		Private Denominational with		Private Non-Denominational with		Total
	500 but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	500 but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	500 but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	
5 or less.....	9	4	1	2	—	—	16
6 to 10.....	15	22	4	—	2	—	43
11 to 15.....	4	3	3	1	4	3	18
16 to 20	2	1	1	1	3	7	15
21 and over.	4	4	14	6	11	12	51
Total.....	34	34	23	10	20	22	143

The boards of state colleges are predominantly small, ranging from six to ten; the boards of private colleges predominantly large, the mode in every case being "21 and over." So great is this predominance in the case of private institutions that it forces the mode for all institutions into the "21 and over." class. It is encouraging to note, however, that the tendency in public institutions seems to be toward the small board of trustees.

[2] Bulletin No. 43, 1915, Department of Interior, Bureau of Education.

[3] In a number of states the same board was responsible for more than one institution. The members of such boards were counted only once.

Table II. contains a statement of the sex classification of board members. Despite the fact that women form a large and rapidly growing proportion of the total college enrollment, women have practically no place on the trustee boards. The situation in the state colleges in this respect differs but slightly from that in the non-denominational private institutions. In the denominational institutions, there are but seven women out of a total of 783 members, or less than 1 per cent.

TABLE II

Members of Boards of Trustees, Classified by Sex and by Colleges

Sex of Members	State Colleges with		Private Denominational with		Private Non-denominational with		Total
	500, but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	500, but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	500, but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	
Male.....	415	330	518	258	367	507	2,395
Female.....	8	23	2	5	22	15	75
Total.....	423	353	520	263	389	522	2,470

The occupational facts with regard to the trustees appear in Table III.

The total number of business men, 930, is considerably over one third of the entire group. The professional men, however, constitute more than one half of the group, while those of miscellaneous occupations occupy a relatively unimportant position.

The business men are mainly in five classes, merchants, manufacturers, capitalists, corporation officials and bankers. Out of the total number of business men, 833 belong in this group. Doctors, lawyers, educators and ministers make up a total of 1,103, which is nine tenths of the entire professional group. Among the miscellaneous occupations, farmers predominate, with "retired" holding a large place, particularly in the non-denominational private institutions. The report showed three mechanics in the total of 2,470, a ratio of one to 800.

The make-up of the college and university boards is evidently quite similar to the make-

up of city boards of education, except that the industrial workers (clerks and mechanics) occupy a place of even greater insignificance. The college and university boards are almost completely dominated by merchants, manufacturers, capitalists, corporation officials, bankers, doctors, lawyers, educators and ministers. These nine occupations contain a total of 1,936 persons, nearly four fifths of the total number of trustees.

TABLE III

Showing Occupations of Members of Boards of Trustees of 143 American Colleges, Classified by Colleges

Occupations	State Colleges with		Private Denominational with		Private Non-denominational with		Totals
	500 but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	500 but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	500 but Less than 1,000 Students	1,000 Students and Over	
Business:							
Merchant	29	32	28	39	33	47	208
Manufacturer	21	13	44	47	43	48	196
Capitalist	21	19	6	9	28	29	112
Contractor	2	2	1	—	1	—	6
Real estate	2	—	14	6	2	8	32
Insurance	6	5	5	3	3	4	26
Official	17	13	10	7	21	47	115
Banker	36	44	36	9	34	43	202
Broker	1	3	5	3	3	—	15
Publisher	—	5	3	—	5	5	18
Total	135	136	152	103	173	231	930
Professional:							
Doctor	23	20	29	13	9	17	111
Lawyer	155	77	71	38	75	98	514
Educator	28	18	17	17	19	26	125
Minister	2	11	188	64	40	48	353
Author	3	3	—	—	2	1	8
Editor	7	11	8	7	3	7	43
Scientist	11	11	5	—	8	35	70
Social worker	1	3	4	—	—	5	13
Judge	—	—	6	6	7	13	32
Total	230	153	328	145	163	250	1,269
Miscellaneous:							
Retired	7	11	15	9	28	24	94
Salesman	1	1	1	—	—	—	3
Farmer	41	41	21	3	10	6	123
Homekeeper	5	11	2	3	15	10	46
Mechanic	2	—	1	—	—	—	3
Librarian	1	—	—	—	—	1	2
Total	58	64	40	15	53	41	271
Grand totals	423	353	520	263	389	522	2,470

In the state institutions, merchants, manufacturers, capitalists, officials, bankers and lawyers alone comprise 477, or more than two thirds of the entire group of 776 board members.

The business and professional world dominates the college and university world completely. Its representatives are so overwhelmingly numerous on the boards of trustees of all classes of higher educational institutions that any decision emanating from them must be final, regarding the teaching force, the course of study or any other vital question of "institutional policy."

While the predominance of business and professional men on the boards of college and university trustees is not as complete as it is on the boards of directors of banks, railroads and manufacturing corporations, it is almost equally conclusive, since these groups control so large a working majority.

The term "subsidized press" has been worn thin from over-use. It was coined to suggest the idea that the newspapers belonged to the business world and therefore worked in their interests. A new term must be coined to suggest the idea of an educational system owned and largely supported by the people but dominated by the business world. Perhaps "plutocratized education" will prove as acceptable as any other phrase SCOTT NEARING

SOCIETIES AND MEETINGS

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

The continued tale of the historical novel.—FREDERIC S. DUNN, University of Oregon. Several recent publications were made the basis of an arraignment of the untrustworthiness, not merely lurking, but too often openly paraded in so-called historical fiction. Scores of errors, misleading statements, inconsistencies, inapt deductions, anachronisms, and blemishes of all sorts were cited from such novels as Baroness Orczy's "Unto Cæsar," Brady's "Fetters of Freedom," Cramp's "Heir to Empire," and Ayscough's "Faustula." Here are some of the indictments:

Although Cæsar died childless, the younger Marcellus is repeatedly styled his lineal descendant; Tiberius is spoken of by a character two centuries later as among the deified Emperors, while his regime is elsewhere characterized by a contemporary under the metaphor "the world-old crown of the Cæsars"; Roman topography is as painfully obscure as a map of interior Africa—the *rostra* in the Forum is described as a structure of dizzy, towering height, the Aurelian Wall of the three hundreds is pushed forward four centuries into the times of Julius Cæsar, while one hero is made to fall through a man-hole into the Catacombs; anachronisms are legion—for example, Bagdad and its Caliphs, "Tartar hordes," and even the Sargossa Sea are mentioned in terms of the Augustan Age; Roman nomenclature is grammatically and historically jumbled and unRoman names clumsily manufactured; ancient customs are garbled and confused—rank among the *equites* at Rome is interpreted as a degree in knighthood, conferred in mediæval times; a Roman man-of-war is pictured with one bank of oars, and only six on a side at that; banqueters are represented reclining on the right elbow; "By all the gods" is put into the mouth of Paul of Tarsus; Jupiter and Jove are coupled together as if two separate deities; and pockets are given a Roman *toga*. Some popular Juveniles should be more properly dubbed "Pueriles," and many of them are fit to be used only as text-books in errors.

The direct method, three years after.—A. P. McKinlay, Lincoln High School, Portland, Ore. The paper was in the nature of a report on the workings of the "Direct Method" of teaching languages, both ancient and modern, as tried at Lincoln during the past three years. The writer undertook to show what results had been attained through the "Direct Method," to set forth its limitations and to forecast its future usefulness. As to results, the "Direct Method" showed a manifest superiority over the old method for the good student. For it supplemented the masterful efficiency of the old system by a far greater development of initiative. Not so much can be said for the new method when the average child is concerned; for under the present conditions it does not provide for all the necessary drill. This impossibility is due to the fact that there is no suitable book, and furthermore, to lack of time. In fact, the writer concludes that under present conditions it is practically impossible for the average student to master the beginning Latin book in the allotted time. As for the future, he points out that many features of the "Direct Method" will be incorporated in the daily work and will live in the teacher herself: for the new method is a spirit rather than a method after all.

Classics and the man of affairs.—W. L. Brewster, Portland, Ore. A man of affairs is the successful man of business interested in a variety of money making pursuits. Such a career is not dependent on knowledge of Latin and Greek. Mental discipline and trained reasoning, while obtained by a study of the classics, may also be had at less cost by application to subjects more closely related to business. The same is true for any specialist except the teacher of Latin and Greek. But a specialist is not a companionable person or a valuable citizen, unless he is informed and wise on other subjects than his regular vocation. The books in Latin and Greek are great in themselves but more important still, their study opens the door to the longest period of sustained intellectual effort the world has enjoyed. The literature, philosophy, history, politics, religion and art of that five hundred years are part of our own intellectual existence and unless we are ready to assert that they are subjects unworthy of serious attention and that we can afford to disregard them for the sake of an exclusive devotion to science and business, then our youth must return to the sources of learning furnished by the classics and their related subjects. It is not the question of Latin and Greek on one hand, and of the physical sciences and vocational study on the other, but it is the older and more abiding question of the value of past thought and action as training for the present and the future.